



# TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

**Supplement to Home Affairs Survey**

**The Main Problems  
Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports  
The Planning Acts 1947  
Replanning in Action  
New Towns**

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*For reference purposes this Supplement  
to the HOME AFFAIRS SURVEY should  
be filed under . . . .*

**ADMINISTRATION**

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## PREFACE

The Town and Country Planning Act, 1947, and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947 received Royal Assent in August, 1947 and became operative in July, 1948.

These two Acts, which are perhaps the most comprehensive planning measures ever to reach the Statute Book, introduce a new planning system whereby such projects as the reconstruction and re-development of entire towns, the preservation of green belts, the provision of open spaces in overcrowded areas, and the allocation of land for new houses, factories and community buildings in the right place become practical possibilities, which can and will be put into effect.

Such projects have been difficult, it not impossible, in the past because of the inflated compensation which Local Authorities generally had to pay to landowners; and because of a planning system which laid undue emphasis on local, as opposed to regional or national, needs.

Land is not nationalized by the new laws, but its use is more strictly and more widely controlled than ever before. The days when a landowner could develop as he chose, subject only to the permission of the Local Planning Authorities which, too often, was forthcoming on financial rather than on aesthetic or practical grounds, are gone. Private development is of course still permissible, and it is still legally possible for an owner to sell his land; but the fact that the value of all land has been fixed at its "existing use" value is having a very salutary effect. At one stroke, this price-fixing deprives the landowner of his right to claim compensation for refusal to develop, unless such refusal brings the value of his land below its value for "existing use", and makes him liable, if permission to develop is granted, to a substantial development charge. In these circumstances, it is likely that any development that takes place will be necessary development and not simply carried out for quick profits. At the same time, Local Planning Authorities are released from the financial burden represented by potential heavy compensation liabilities; and can put their plans into effect in a more imaginative and progressive way than has hitherto been the general rule.

Undue hardship for landowners, whose land has been depreciated in value by the new laws, is avoided by the setting aside of a capital sum of £300,000,000, out of which payments may be made to people whose claims have been examined and approved by the Central Land Board. The Central Land Board, which is a new body set up by the 1947 Acts, is also responsible for determining and levying development charges on the development of land for which planning permission has been given.

The new laws thus dispose of the major problem of compensation and betterment, which has been hampering good planning for many years. In order to ensure that Local Planning Authorities use the opportunities now offered to them positively and constructively—not merely to prevent bad, but to encourage the best development—they are required under the Acts to submit development plans within three years. These plans are to be reviewed every five years, so that they may, if necessary, be adapted to changing conditions and demands. Provision is also made for regional planning where required and for co-ordination by the Minister at the national level.

In addition to describing the new laws in some detail, this paper traces the development of the control of land use since Town and Country Planning first appeared on the Statute Book in 1909. It deals with the problems facing successive Governments and the measures that they have taken in an effort to bring about a better balanced national life through a more even distribution of industry, the safeguarding of agricultural land, and the preservation of amenity in both town and countryside. In this connection, it is well to remember the important part played by unofficial organizations and private individuals in stimulating and guiding State measures, and to bear in mind that Town and Country Planning has been, and is, a matter for co-operation between the State, the experts and the people.

# I. MAIN PROBLEMS

## INTRODUCTORY NOTE

The root of the manifold difficulties inherent in replanning Britain today lies in the past reluctance (a reluctance that lasted well into the present century and was shared by most of the countries of Europe and the West) to accept the fact that some measure of control was essential to the sound development of a country undergoing a rapid process of industrialization and all that that process implies.

The paramount idea of the nineteenth century (which witnessed the full force of the Industrial Revolution) was that free untrammelled enterprise was the highroad to national prosperity, and that State intervention in any form would represent not only an unwarranted encroachment on liberty but also so serious a handicap as to imperil the future of the whole population. Industrialists and builders had, therefore, complete liberty in all branches of their concerns. They were free to start factories and build houses where they wished and could acquire the necessary land. There were no restrictions on siting and few on the types of buildings that might be erected. There were virtually no statutory regulations concerning the preservation of amenities: and actually none for the provision of sanitary housing, easy transport or proper educational and recreational facilities.

This did not mean that no industrialist or builder recognized his responsibilities in these matters—on the contrary, many paid them considerable attention according to the standards of the time—but it did mean an absence of co-ordinated long-term planning. Moreover, it led, in the first place, to great congestion in towns which possessed certain advantages for industrial enterprise, e.g., those situated on or near coal-fields, or in the vicinity of large ports, etc., and subsequently, when the congested conditions became intolerable, to a monstrous suburban sprawl, thus contributing to a lack of balance in the distribution of industry in the country as a whole.

The countryside was less adversely affected by lack of planning than were towns and cities, but it suffered none the less. The vast extension into rural fringes brought about by an unregulated suburban spread has resulted, among other things, in:

- (a) the loss of a great deal of productive agricultural land. According to the *Report of the Committee on Land Utilization in Rural Areas*,<sup>1</sup> an annual average of 60,000 acres was taken over for various kinds of building and other constructional developments between 1927 and 1939 quite aside from any depredations that had gone before; and
- (b) the dislocation of farming and the break-up of farm units. Since agricultural land on the outskirts of towns was always under the threat of the builder, it tended either to be farmed badly for quick returns or to be allowed to lie idle until the market was considered suitable for sale, when it soon deteriorated into waste land.

In addition the setting up of new industries on undeveloped land in the vicinity of already flourishing industrial centres had a deleterious effect on

<sup>1</sup> Conveniently known as the Scott Report [Cmd. 6378; from the name of the Committee's Chairman Lord Justice Scott.

agricultural production in that the noxious fumes and poisonous effluents discharged by certain types of factories ruined crops and made streams and rivers running through neighbouring farms unfit for watering cattle. Furthermore, in the absence of regulations to the contrary, many of the most beautiful parts of the country were defaced by housing estates of the "bungaloid" variety, and holiday camps and individual houses established with no regard to the surrounding scenery.

The task of rebuilding Britain according to present day standards of health, amenity and beauty would be formidable and lengthy enough, even if there were nothing more to be considered than the architectural remedying of past defects in layout and design. Town and Country Planning is, however, involved in the broader questions of location of industry, compensation and betterment, the machinery of government and so forth. Some solution had to be found to these problems before progress could be made in rebuilding and redevelopment.

### THE LOCATION OF INDUSTRY

One outstanding feature of British industry during the past hundred years has been its persistent concentration in seven areas of the country, to wit: London and the Home counties; Lancashire; West Riding, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire; Staffordshire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Leicestershire and Northamptonshire; Northumberland and Durham; Mid-Scotland; Glamorgan and Monmouthshire.

The concentration was due in the first place to natural or historical causes. The basic industries—mining, shipbuilding, iron and steel manufacture, the manufacture of textiles—were either set up close to their motive power and source of supply; or, as in the case of the cotton industry which settled in Lancashire "for no particular reason, except, perhaps that the woollen industry was already there, that foreigners were kindly received, and that Manchester was not subject to the restrictive influences of the Corporations of those days."<sup>2</sup> It was perpetuated because flourishing industries not only create conditions favourable to their own expansion, but also stimulate the establishment of subsidiary industries.

Its inevitable result has been to draw into its orbit the majority of the population. By 1937, seventy-nine per cent. of the insured population were resident in the seven conurbations of London, Birmingham, Manchester, Merseyside, Tyneside, West Yorkshire and Glasgow. Twenty-six per cent. lived in London and the Home Counties alone—a preponderance that was due mainly to the important and expanding industries in that area, to the decline of industries in other parts of the country, and to its attraction for new factories engaged in lighter industries such as general engineering, dressmaking, miscellaneous metal goods industries, motor vehicles, cycles, aircraft and chemicals. Of the net increase of 644 factories in the whole of Britain between 1932 and 1937, no less than 532 were located in London.

These great conurbations are too often characterized by (a) inner areas of narrow streets where houses, factories and other industrial establishments are intermixed without plan, where building has proceeded

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population, page 32, paragraph 72, commonly known as the Barlow Report after its Chairman, Sir Montague Barlow.

without regard to the need for preserving open spaces, and where the ill-effects of smoke and noise are very considerable indeed, and (b) outer areas of dormitory suburbs, from which "nearly everything that contributes to the well-being of a normal town is conspicuously absent." Their growth has immeasurably complicated:

- (a) *the question of transport.* The larger a town grows, the greater becomes the volume of traffic converging upon the central area and the greater the congestion. The same factor forces up land values in the centre, making the provision of adequate roads more difficult. Furthermore, the expansion of industrial activity in the central area has the effect of forcing people into the suburbs (since land once used for residential purposes is taken over for commercial and similar buildings), while at the same time providing more employment; so that those same people are committed to making long daily journeys to and from their places of work. This places a burden on the existing road and railway systems (although these, especially in London, were before the war the most comprehensive and efficient in the world) that their services are unable to support;
- (b) *the question of rehousing.* The housing conditions of the working classes in the centre of large towns were being improved during the decade before the outbreak of the second world war by slum clearance, by the abatement of overcrowding and by the development of rehousing. A certain number of people rehoused under these schemes were moved to the outer areas, but the nature of their work made it essential for some of them to continue living close to the centre. The prevailing congestion in the centre meant that nearly all the new accommodation had to be provided in large blocks of flats, which are considered by many experts less satisfactory for family life than are cottages. Moreover, the high price of central sites meant that the provision of these blocks of flats represented a heavy charge on public funds, since they could not otherwise be let at rents within the financial reach of their prospective tenants;
- (c) *the question of raising the standard of national health.* In spite of the fact that large towns have been the leaders in improving the social services (a concentrated population enables better environmental, public health and medical services to be provided at a lesser cost to the public than are possible in a scattered community), the general and infant mortality rates have been persistently higher for urban than for rural districts. The factors responsible for this state of affairs are generally considered to be (i) the crowding together of houses, (ii) the crowding together of people in houses too small for them, (iii) the apparent aggravation by urban conditions of other adverse effects of economic pressure upon the standard of living and environment, (iv) the production of smoke from factories and homes which reduces the effective sunshine, (v) the continual din present in the inner areas of large cities which has a lowering effect upon the vitality of those persons continually subjected to it, (vi) the lack of open space which deprives the city dweller of adequate opportunities for open air exercise and recreation.



The concentration of industry has however certain substantial economic, social, and cultural advantages. It means for instance that industries of an allied character, those engaged in ancillary and sometimes in finishing processes, and those that can use the by-products of the leading industry or can supply it with components and equipment, can maintain production at a lower cost than if they were widely scattered, since transport costs are kept lower, and the co-ordination of marketing, warehousing and selling arrangements is facilitated. Furthermore, there grows up in such an area a supply of workpeople having the specialized skill which industry requires and a body of experts, consultants and executives experienced in its technical and administrative requirements. For the workpeople, it also means a greater choice of employment and opportunities for advancement not found elsewhere. It is furthermore an undoubted fact that industrial centres with their large populations are able to provide more varied, more efficient and more readily accessible elementary, higher and technical educational facilities; more recreational opportunities generally (as represented by museums, art galleries, concert halls, theatres, cinemas, clubs, and lectures); and more social intercourse of every kind.

It is obvious that the consideration of these and similar advantages must be given due weight before any plans for the decentralization of industry and population can be put into effect, since it is essential that in removing the disadvantages of concentration, its favourable aspects should not also be eliminated. It is equally obvious that this can only be achieved by complete agreement between those responsible for the siting of industry, those responsible for town and country planning in its broadest sense, and all those actually engaged in industrial work.

#### OWNERSHIP OF THE LAND

Although large areas of the land in Britain are publicly owned—that is to say they belong to Local Authorities either by ancient heritage or by more recent purchase—by far the greater part of it is still in private ownership. This does not mean that owners have an absolute right to do as they like with their land. It has long been accepted that ownership carries with it duties to the community that no private interest can or should outweigh. These duties may involve submission to a limitation of rights of user without surrender of possession; they may involve complete surrender of possession to the State; where developed land is concerned, they have increasingly involved an obligation to comply with specified requirements regarding the maintenance of property, the improvement of its sanitary equipment, the observation of regulations governing constructional standards, and the provision of adequate air space round buildings and of streets of sufficient width.

But in spite of the fact that restrictions based on the duties of neighbourliness may be and are imposed on landowners without involving the conception that the owner is thereby being deprived of any property or interest, the common law of Britain does not recognize the right of requisitioning property by the State without liability to pay compensation. In other words, although owners are obliged to use their land in such a way as not to injure other people in the enjoyment of their own rights, they cannot be forced to give up their land or to use it in such a way as would be tantamount to an expropriation of property right or interest without being paid at a fair market price for loss of actual or potential development value. Control of land use by the State therefore involves



the State in the duty of paying compensation to private owners out of public funds.

It was the intention of those responsible for framing the laws of compensation that it should be balanced or partly balanced by betterment charges. That is to say since public control of the use of land did not destroy land values (neither the total demand for development nor its average annual rate is materially affected by planning ordinances) but simply transferred them from one area to another, it followed that the loss to one owner, whose land was requisitioned or whose rights of user were restricted, was balanced by the gain to another and that therefore the second type of owner could reasonably be expected to pay a proportion of his gain to the State to make up for the amount paid out to the first. General clauses to this effect were therefore inserted in various Planning Acts, but they remained completely (or almost completely) inoperative, since in practice it proved virtually impossible to say with certainty to what extent a given land value was attributable to a given cause. The situation arose in which compensation charges had to be paid, but betterment could rarely (if ever) be collected.

As a result few Local Planning Authorities felt themselves in a financial position to incur compensation liabilities for which they were unlikely to get any return.

The kernel of the problem, so far as *developed land* was concerned, was the high price of land in big towns and cities, and the fact that the compensation or purchase price payable for the land of each individual owner had to be determined by reference to its most profitable use. In addition, acquisition in developed areas involved payment of the value of existing buildings, even if these needed to be demolished, and compensation to traders for their removal expenses and for disturbance to their business. In these circumstances, Local Planning Authorities naturally hesitated (in view of the limited resources at their disposal) to impose any effective control of use or to requisition land for the purpose of carrying out such improvements as widening roads, providing open spaces, rebuilding slum areas or establishing industrial necessities—docks, offices, factory sites, etc.

The position as regards *undeveloped land* was even more complicated, and its purchase was liable to represent to Local Planning Authorities an equally heavy financial burden. For owners of undeveloped land are entitled (on compulsory acquisition or on restriction of user's rights) to compensation on the basis of a probability that building would have taken place upon their land. That is to say, they are entitled to receive payment for its potential development value; and potential development value is always speculative (no one can say for certain that some competing land elsewhere may not receive a prior turn), and in any case is spread over a far wider area than can actually be developed in the near future, or indeed is ever likely to be so developed. In the words of the Report on the Preservation of the Countryside made by the Minister of Health's Town and Country Planning Advisory Committee in July, 1936: "If all building except agricultural is permanently prohibited over wide areas, compensation must be paid for the loss of potential building value over these areas. It may be that on any reasonable estimate that can be formed not more than one hundred houses are likely to be built in a 100,000-acre rural zone in the lifetime of any planning scheme, so that over the whole zone the loss of potential building value on prohibition of building would be one hundred houses only. But, potential building value is necessarily a

"floating value" and it is practically impossible to predict where it will settle. Hence, if the 100,000 acres are held in many ownerships, and claims by individual owners for loss of potential building value come to be separately adjudicated (as under the present system they must be), the total resulting bill for compensation is likely to be enormous and greatly to exceed in the aggregate the amount of the real loss."

Furthermore, if a particular piece of land was sold for development at a high price, all owners of comparable land in the neighbourhood could put in a claim that their land was not worth less; and if their land was required by the State for an immediate purpose or for one to be considered at some future date, it was that high price that had to be paid.

These in outline are the economic factors which have most seriously hampered planning in the past. The time factor, caused partly by the long-drawn-out consultations that were carried on with owners before their land was publicly acquired, proved almost equally obstructive. It is obvious that some form of negotiation was, and is, necessary and just, but planning legislation, originally designed mainly for the purpose of guiding or regulating private development over a period of time, conspicuously lacked any sense of urgency at all. The procedure provided for detailed advertisement at every stage, and consideration of suggestions and objections; and although time limits were imposed by Statute for the completion of each stage, it was always possible for the limits to be extended. As a result, it usually took several years for a scheme to reach final form, and even then the planning authority had only limited powers to compel or hasten positive development or redevelopment.

There is no doubt that this elaborate and lengthy procedure, as well as the complicated and controversial system of compensation and betterment have proved a serious handicap to the planning needs of the country. The fact is that land in private ownership is a marketable commodity, and that landowners are justifiably interested in putting their property to its most profitable use. At the same time, the State, as guardian of the rights of the whole community, must do its utmost to ensure the best use of all land irrespective of financial return. Before planning could be established on a sound basis, it was clear that a means had to be found for removing the conflict between these two equally defensible outlooks.

### THE MACHINERY OF PLANNING

The dominant conception of planning when it first became recognized as a matter of national concern, was, broadly speaking, that most forms of positive development (with the exception of roads and sewers and similar work) should be left to private enterprise and that public authority should only intervene to ensure that such development deprived no one of requisite living space or a certain minimum standard of amenities. In other words, the origin of planning was narrow and mainly negative in conception; and this reflected itself in the character of the machinery set up to enforce it. The machinery was designed to prevent abuses and to fill gaps, not to promote positive development. It was highly localized, and its operation was in the hands of the smallest authorities with extensive powers, i.e., the boroughs, and the urban and rural districts.

In its early days, it was tolerably effective. It did a good deal to preserve local amenities and to prevent the recurrence of past mistakes. But it failed to keep pace with the change in the accepted principles of planning

—that is to say, it remained predominantly negative and local, while the ideals which it was intended to serve broadened out and became more positive—and thus increased the difficulties of control.

Its main defects, at the outbreak of World War II, were:

- (a) that it was primarily an affair of the smaller Local Authorities in England and Wales (see above), and of the counties and large burghs in Scotland, who, in the main, acted independently and without reference to the needs of the neighbouring communities. Regional planning existed only insofar as Local Authorities chose to set up Joint Committees or (in England and Wales) where county districts chose to surrender their powers to the County Council. In point of fact, Local Authorities had shown an increasing tendency to co-operate in this way in the decade before the second world war; whereas in 1926, there were only 34 Joint Committees, of which only one had executive power to make a plan binding on the constituent authorities, by 1938, there were 138 of them, all with executive powers. Nevertheless, the areas of Joint Committees were often inadequate for the carrying out of large-scale planning schemes; and it was perfectly possible and by no means unknown for a district to contract out of a regional planning scheme and to remain as an island of purely local planning right in the middle of a region. Furthermore, the local bias of town planning meant that where there was only a Joint Advisory Committee, as was the case in such important areas as London and the West Midlands, there was a tendency for regional proposals to be dropped when they came to be included in the operative plans of the constituent authorities.
- (b) that many Local Planning Authorities did not cover what may be called “natural” planning areas. That is to say, the majority of them controlled areas too small to permit the putting into effect of a comprehensive scheme which would cover and dovetail industrial and agricultural needs;
- (c) that planning powers did not extend to all land. Crown property and the property of many statutory undertakers was exempt, and a good deal of agricultural land could only be brought in by stretching the letter of existing legislation;
- (d) that planning powers were merely permissive, unless the Minister of Health chose to exercise compulsion, which in fact he never did. As a result, according to the Report of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population (published January, 1940), planning powers were not used in a great many cases: The Town and Country Planning Act of 1932 was, for instance, inoperative in the areas of 330 Local Authorities in England and Wales, including several complete counties, as well as in many counties of Scotland. In many cases these were areas of great natural beauty where even a little misplaced development would have caused great harm, but where low rateable values made Local Authorities unwilling to face the cost of planning and compensation;
- (e) that although Local Authorities had very effective powers to prevent development to which they objected, they had no powers to ensure that development would in fact take place where it was considered desirable. If, for instance, a firm wished to settle on

a particular site which the landowner would not sell, the Local Planning Authority had no powers to compel the owner to sell, however desirable it was that he should do so;

- (f) that there was no adequate provision for the collection of betterment.

In addition planning has tended to suffer from:

- (i) lack of research facilities. Although regional surveys were made at various times for various purposes during the decade before the outbreak of the second world war, no continuous and up-to-date records of social conditions and economic trends covering the country as a whole were kept. This absence of general information was a serious disadvantage in the operation of planning machinery, since it frequently meant that local plans were drawn up without any reference to the general planning needs of the country and so ran the risk of being inopportune, redundant or impracticable;
- (ii) lack of first-class personnel. The majority of Local Authorities were unable, from lack of financial resources, to employ highly-qualified planning experts to operate their planning machinery. A certain number of them overcame this difficulty by employing outside consultants for specific issues, but even this was not always satisfactory, since a continuous knowledge of local conditions is, as a rule, important in the drawing up or putting into effect of a planning scheme.

## II. LEGISLATION 1909-1939

### ACTS OF PARLIAMENT

The conception of the planned use of land was first given statutory recognition by the passing of the *Housing and Town Planning etc. Act* of 1909, which introduced the idea that the land of individual owners ought not to be regarded simply as isolated plots to be developed entirely according to individual taste, but as parts of a greater whole to be developed as far as possible with due regard to "amenity and convenience in connection with laying out and use of the land and of any neighbouring lands."

The machinery created by the Act, however, proved cumbersome and rather difficult of operation; and a number of improvements were therefore introduced in the *Housing, Town Planning, etc. Act*, 1919 and the *Housing, Town Planning, etc. (Scotland) Act*, 1919.

These two Acts removed a number of obstructions in the way of preparing town planning schemes, replaced voluntary planning to a certain extent by compulsory planning and prepared the way for regional rather than for purely local planning.

The *Housing Act*, 1923 (Part II of which dealt with town planning) made further slight amendments in planning law and led up to the *Town Planning Act*, 1925 and the *Town Planning (Scotland) Act*, 1925, which, although they did little more than consolidate previous planning enactments, were the first Acts to treat town planning as a separate question, and to give it a statutory importance of its own.

The *Local Government Act*, 1929 gave force to this idea by strengthening the hands of the Local Authorities as regarded their planning activities, and by giving County Councils, as the most powerful Local Authorities, the right to participate in the preparation of planning schemes, whereas previously only the smaller Authorities had been concerned; and, three years later, in the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1932, the first complete code of planning law was drawn up. This Act extended the scope of planning schemes to include the planning of built-up areas and also of land not likely to be developed at all as well as undeveloped land actually in the course of development or upon which development was scheduled to begin. It also gave Local Authorities wider and more definite powers of planning control than they had hitherto enjoyed.

No fundamental changes to the existing law governing compensation were made; and, in general, the principle continued to be very generally accepted that where the property of one man might be subjected to all manner of restrictions in the interest of the public as a whole, it was only proper that he should receive some return for any injury he might have to suffer.

The betterment provisions differed in two important respects from those of the earlier Acts, viz.:

The proportion of the increase in the value claimable by Local Authorities was increased from 50 per cent. to 75 per cent.; and

Provision was made for owners to require the deferment of claims by Local Authorities until betterment had actually been realized (subject to a time limit).

The Act also dealt comprehensively with those circumstances in which a right to acquire land in connection with planning might be conferred,



giving wide general powers to the various types of authority concerned, and a number of particular powers to be exercised in special cases.

Finally, the Act provided that certain Local Authorities, i.e., the Common Council of the City of London and the Council of any County, County Borough, Non-County Borough, Urban or Rural District, might acquire land coming within the area of any scheme if they needed such land for a public open space or a playing field.

In addition to legislation directly concerned with town and country planning, certain Acts were passed between 1909 and 1939 dealing with subsidiary matters. The most important of these were those concerned with:

- (a) *The Establishment of Garden Cities*, to which sections of both the *Housing (Additional) Powers Act*, 1919 and the *Housing, etc., Act*, 1921, were devoted; and
- (b) *The control of Ribbon Development*, which was the subject of a special Act, viz.: the *Restriction of Ribbon Development Act*, passed in 1935.

#### SUMMARY

On the whole, despite good intentions, the effects of the first thirty years of Town and Country Planning were unremarkable. The subject was (as has already been explained) an extremely complicated one involving a variety of interests with sharply conflicting demands. Legislative machinery soon proved itself unequal to the task of reconciliation and was used more and more as a weapon of defence. It became regulative rather than constructive; it tended to work more and more locally and to narrow down its operational fields; it lacked compulsion—even after 1932 there were considerable tracts of land which Local Authorities were not bound, nor even had the power, to bring under planning control; and finally it was timid and uncertain, so that Local Authorities of every kind found their planning powers hedged about with compensation provisions which would have imposed heavy burdens on the rates if really adequate open spaces and “green belts” had been reserved, if congestion in urban centres had been relieved and if suburban sprawl had been effectively prevented. In short, planning legislation prior to the outbreak of the second world war had failed in the most important of its aims, and by the end of the nineteen-thirties it had become widely recognized that further and much more comprehensive measures were essential if planning were to become a national reality rather than an idealistic dream.



### III. PROGRESS 1939-1946

The considerable history of town and country planning during the six years of the second world war can be roughly split up into two main divisions:

- (1) the original impetus given to a reconsideration of the whole subject provided by the Barlow Report on the Location of Industry and the Distribution of the Industrial Population; and the "follow-up" represented by the Scott Report on Land Utilization in Rural Areas, and the Uthwatt Report on Compensation and Betterment; and
- (2) the Government response to these Reports, as illustrated by legislative action and by indications of future policy outlined in White Papers and in other public pronouncements.

#### THE THREE REPORTS

##### The Barlow Report

The Report of the Barlow Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population (constituted in 1937 "to inquire into the causes which have influenced the present geographical distribution of the industrial population of Great Britain, and the probable direction of any change in that distribution in the future; to consider what social, economic or strategical disadvantages arise from the concentration of industry or of the industrial population in large towns or in particular areas of the country; and to report what remedial measures, if any, should be taken in the national interest") was presented to Parliament in January, 1940, and provided a starting point for a new conception of the planned use of land. Its recommendations for the redevelopment of congested urban areas; for the dispersal of industries and industrial populations from such areas; and for the provision of a reasonable balance of industrial employment throughout the country set in clear perspective the requirements of a better condition of life and work for an industrial nation. Its presentation of the problem as both urgent and incapable of solution without the assumption of control by some central authority with a high degree of initiative and responsibility, brought about a general acceptance of the principle of national (as opposed to local) planning and a recognition that this must be applied without delay and on as broad a basis as possible.

The immediate effects of the Report were seen in (i) the special mandate given to the Minister of Works and Building to consider what machinery and legislation would be necessary for carrying out the reconstruction of town and countryside after the war, (ii) the authorization extended to him to proceed with his preparatory work on the premise that national planning under a Central Authority would be part of the national policy, and (iii) the setting up of other expert committees to study two of the most important questions raised by the Report, viz., the effect of the main proposals upon rural areas and the problem of compensation and betterment.

##### The Scott Report

The Report of the Committee on Land Utilization in Rural Areas (appointed in October, 1941, "to consider the conditions which should govern building and other constructional development in country areas consistently with the maintenance of agriculture, and in particular the

factors affecting the location of industry, having regard to economic operation, part-time and seasonal employment, the well-being of rural communities and the preservation of rural amenities") was presented to Parliament in August, 1942, after a detailed and wide-ranging examination not only of the general effects upon the agricultural industry of a large increase of physical construction in the countryside, but also of the measures that were needed to revitalize the rural areas so that they might absorb a certain amount of urban encroachment without loss to their characteristic way of life. In general, the recommendations of the Scott Report were in line with the Barlow proposals, although they laid somewhat greater stress on the need for maintaining good agricultural land and preserving natural amenities. To this end it was suggested that industrial demand should be encouraged to find its outlet in vacant and derelict sites in towns, and that where it penetrated into rural areas, it should be confined to existing or new small towns and should not be allowed into villages or into the open country; that new satellite towns, housing estates, garden cities and suburbs be sited where practicable away from the better farmland, and that every effort should be made (i) by education, (ii) by the revision and enforcement of certain laws and regulations governing such matters as access to the countryside, footpaths and control of use of rights of way, and (iii) by the establishment of National Parks and "nature" reserves to reaffirm the principle that the countryside is a national heritage to be regarded and enjoyed as such.

The Report emphasized first that planning must be essentially a matter of balancing the national advantages in deciding to what use a particular area or piece of land should be put; and secondly (and here it closely supported the Barlow Report) that decisions of this magnitude and importance must be in the hands of a Central Authority supported by an apparatus of legal and executive machinery sufficiently powerful to impose such decisions and ensure that they bore fruit.

### **The Uthwatt Report**

The Report of the Expert Committee on Compensation and Betterment (appointed in January, 1941 "to make an objective analysis of the subject of the payment of compensation and the recovery of betterment in respect of public control of the use of the land; to advise as a matter of urgency, what steps should be taken now or before the end of the war to prevent the work of reconstruction thereafter being prejudiced, and in this connection to consider possible means of stabilizing the value of land required for development or re-development and any extension or modification of powers to enable such land to be acquired by the public on an equitable basis; to examine the merits and demerits of the methods considered; and to advise what alteration of the existing law would be necessary to enable them to be adopted") was presented to Parliament in September, 1942. After a most thorough investigation into the controversial issue between public and private ownership the Report concluded that the only way out of the confusion produced by the existing practice of compensation and betterment was to bring all land affected by planning resolutions into a single ownership where shifts of land value brought about by such planning could take place without the disturbances that inevitably took place where land was held in multiple ownership. In order to achieve this end (and as immediate means to improve the situation) the Report recommended:

<sup>3</sup>See Chapter 1, page 8.

- (a) that the State should acquire development rights of all land outside built-up areas, with fair compensation on a "global basis in ratio to market values at March 31, 1939". Such land should be compulsorily acquired at the residual agricultural value if and when needed for development, and be granted to the developer on leasehold only;
- (b) that all land should be deemed from a fixed date to be covered by a Planning Resolution;
- (c) that Planning Authorities should be given powers to purchase war-damaged and obsolete or unsatisfactory built-up areas needing re-development as a whole, for development by the Authorities themselves or by private enterprise; and that all land so acquired should be leased, not sold outright;
- (d) that the procedure for the compulsory acquisition of land should be speeded up;
- (e) that the rules for assessing compensation should be revised; that the excessive values resulting from public demand should be discounted for compensation purposes; that in paying compensation for obsolete buildings or those that did not fit in with a proposed planning scheme, account should be taken of the fact that they *were* obsolete or unsuitable and valuation accordingly rated down; and that the "1939 ceiling" should be retained for the time being; and
- (f) that the betterment problem should be dealt with by a periodic levy (of say 75 per cent.) on the increase on annual site values of all developed land, whatever the reason for such increase of values, the values to be assessed quinquennially by the machinery in being for rating purposes.

#### GOVERNMENT RESPONSE 1943-1946

The response by the Government to the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports was manifested in legislation and discussion over the next three years.

#### Central Planning Authority

The establishment of a Central Planning Authority was effected by the passing of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act*, February, 1943<sup>4</sup> by which the central planning powers were transferred from the Ministry of Works and Buildings to a new Ministry charged with the duty of "ensuring consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use of the land." This was a tremendous step forward in planning history, signaling as it did the public recognition of the fact that control of land use was sufficiently essential to the welfare of the community to warrant a separate administration at a national level.

#### Interim Planning Control

The extension of Interim Planning Control was effected by the passing

<sup>4</sup>Only applicable to England and Wales. In Scotland, the Secretary of State continues to be the Central Authority.

of the *Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) Act, July 1943*<sup>5</sup> which in the first place provided that any land not already covered by a planning scheme should from henceforth be deemed to be covered by a planning resolution (thus bringing all land in the country under interim planning control, and so avoiding the risk that development by speculators would make the task of post-war planning far more difficult); and in the second place strengthened the position of both the Local Authorities and the Minister in regard to interim development as a whole.

Under the new Act, Local Authorities acquired considerably more freedom to refuse permission for interim development than they had hitherto enjoyed. They were moreover empowered to revoke permission already granted (if changed circumstances forced a change of plan); and were also entitled to remove or pull down any building or work erected, or to reinstate any land used in contravention of an interim development order—the cost to be recovered as a civil debt from the person by whom the development was carried out. Furthermore, they were authorized to give permission for the erection of temporary buildings on the express understanding that such buildings must be removed at the end of a fixed period without compensation.

The Minister, for his part, was given the right (a) to require any application or class of application for interim development to be referred to him, (b) to order any Local Authority to revoke permission already given and (c) to constitute Joint Planning Committees (where this would add to the efficiency of planning) without a request from any of the Authorities concerned.

The provisions of this Act were implemented in April 1945 by the framing of the *Town and Country Planning (General Interim Development) Order*, the purpose of which was, according to the Explanatory Memorandum issued at the time, to revise the 1933 Order in such a way as to meet the changed outlook on planning and to establish “a system of control to safeguard its essential outlook with the minimum of delay and inconvenience to those desiring to carry out development.”

### Control of Land Use

Suggestions of more effective methods for the control of land use were contained in the White Paper on the *Control of Land Use* (Cmd. 6537), June 1944, which:

- (i) listed the aims of future planning policy as: harmonizing the claims of land for housing, industry, agriculture, national parks, roads and airfields; redeveloping bombed and obsolete areas; conserving good agricultural land; preventing sporadic and unsightly building and “ribbon development”; minimizing the risk of road accidents; avoiding the loss of time and traffic congestion due to large numbers of people travelling long distances to work; eliminating the excessive cost of environmental and social services caused by bad layout; and relieving “overcrowding”;
- (ii) suggested that the power of public purchase of land should be facilitated; and that development rights should be subject to a statutory restriction so as to secure that, although they remained vested in the owner, they could not be exercised until approval

<sup>5</sup>In Scotland, by the *Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) (Scotland) Act*, November 1944.

of the proposed development or redevelopment had been obtained from the Planning Authority; and

(iii) dealt with the question of compensation and betterment.

On this last point, the White Paper stated that though the Government accepted as substantially correct the Uthwatt Committee's analysis of the problems, they were unable "due to serious practical difficulties" to adopt the detailed proposals contained in that Report. They therefore put forward for public discussion an alternative scheme, reserving to themselves the right to change or modify the scheme if this should seem desirable in the light of public opinion. The main provisions of the scheme were briefly:

- (i) that there should be complete control of the use to which land is put; that the requirement to obtain permission before making any change of use should extend to all land, whether built on or not built on; and that control should be operated in the main by licences to develop;
- (ii) that when permission to develop or redevelop (which materially increases the value of the land) was given, the owner should pay a *betterment charge* of 80 per cent. of the difference of value due to such permission;
- (iii) that when permission to develop or redevelop was refused, the owner should be paid *fair compensation* for any loss of value that existed at 31st March, 1939; but that fair compensation should not include "floating" or potential value; and that while the *individual right* to compensation should be determined as soon as possible after the coming into force of the new legislation on the subject, the level at which it should be paid should only be decided at the end of a five year period; and
- (iv) that a central Land Commission should be established to undertake the assessment and payment of compensation under the proposals set out above, and the assessment and collection of betterment charges, thus bringing into a single account the payment of compensation *as a whole*, and the receipt of betterment charges *as a whole*, and leaving Local Authorities free to plan the development or redevelopment of their areas with a much greater degree of freedom from the limitations of financial responsibility.

The White Paper concluded that if the proposals outlined in its pages met with general approval and were in due course embodied in legislation, a statutory basis would be created "on which a fresh and promising approach could be made towards securing the best use of the land of the country, both urban and rural."

### Provisions for Constructive Planning

The introduction of provisions for constructive as opposed to purely restrictive planning was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning Act*, November 1944<sup>6</sup> which, although it was in the main a Land Acquisition Act and the most important of its provisions were therefore directed to this end, also contained clauses concerning statutory planning as a whole.

<sup>6</sup>In Scotland by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act*, June 1945 which adapted Government policy to meet Scottish law, history and conditions of land tenure.



The chief purpose of the Act was to enable Local Authorities, with the consent of the Minister, to purchase, by compulsory methods if necessary: (i) areas of "extensive war damage" and land adjacent thereto, if they could show that such areas needed to be laid out afresh and redeveloped as a whole; (ii) areas where although there may not have been any extensive war damage, a similar need arose because there were conditions of bad lay-out and obsolete development—and in this case also powers could extend to adjacent land; (iii) land required for the "re-location of population or industry" arising out of the redevelopment of war damaged or obsolete areas; and (iv) land required for securing "an appropriate balance of development" e.g. industrial development or community buildings in a town where the proportion of these in relation to other development was too low; or for the provision of public open spaces or playing fields; or for securing development which was required in the public interest but which in the interests of proper planning, could not be carried out in the place where it was proposed; and for other purposes essential to good planning.

Powers were therefore conferred on Local Authorities (as had been proposed in the White Paper on the Control of Land Use to purchase such land by a more simple and expeditious procedure than had hitherto been available to them. So far as obsolete areas of land required for highways or for any of the purposes set out under (iv) above were concerned, the main changes from earlier procedure were in the removal of hindrances to speed and efficiency. But, as regards land in areas of extensive war damage or that required for associated "overspill," a new feature was introduced. This new feature is to be known as a "Declaratory" Order which may be obtained from the Minister at any time within five years of a date to be fixed by him. Its object is to enable the principle of acquisition to be settled for a larger area than could be included in a Compulsory Purchase Order. When a Declaratory Order is made, it will mean that all land to which it refers will from that time onwards be subject to compulsory purchase whenever it is needed for putting a planning scheme into effect. Any objections to such purchase must be raised at the time when the Declaratory Order is made, so that when the time is ripe for purchase, it can be carried through and development started without delay.

Another new feature of the Act was the provision made for a heightened degree of planning collaboration between Local Authorities of various kinds. This was done by the insertion of clauses to the effect that the powers of land acquisition of a Local Authority engaged in redevelopment and having a congestion problem (to be known in this context as the "promoting" Authority) may, with the consent of the Minister, be handed over to the Local Authority in whose district the displaced industry or population is to be re-located (to be known in this context as the "area" Authority). Agreement may be reached between these two Authorities on "any matters relating to the carrying out of the purpose for which the purchase in question may be authorized, and in particular, in the case of a purchase for the purpose of providing for re-location of population or industry in the course of the redevelopment of a part of the area of the promoting Authority, as to the lay-out and manner of use of the land to be purchased, and as to rendering accommodation provided therein available for persons or undertakings from the area of the promoting Authority." Such Agreement may be negotiated between the two Authorities concerned, and the Minister has powers to see that it is carried



out; the terms may be varied later by mutual consent or by the Minister at the instance of either Authority.

In other words, a solution to re-location problems, without regard for Local Government boundaries, has been provided: and it is generally considered that if these powers are properly used, many of the difficulties of transfer should be by-passed and both types of Authority reap considerable benefit.

As regards the manner of dealing with the land acquired under the Act, the general principle differed from that of previous legislation in that it laid down that Local Authorities should dispose of such land by leasing it for periods not exceeding 99 years to private developers, rather than by appropriating it for development themselves. By this means, Local Authorities were placed in a position (recommended in the White Paper on *Control of Land Use*, where they could control, and even direct, all new development, but where they were not bound to shoulder all financial risk.

Since however the underlying object of land acquisition is its development or redevelopment in accordance with a pattern properly related to the rest of the country, the Act reaffirmed the principle that plans showing in detail how the land acquired was to be laid out afresh or redeveloped as a whole must be submitted to the Minister by the Local Authority at some stage before the land was either finally disposed of or appropriated.

In addition to the above provisions (which at least laid the foundations for planning of a kind and on a scale envisaged by the compilers of the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports), the Act contained clauses which altered the planning code as established by the Acts of 1932 and 1943 in four important respects:

- (i) development carried out by an Interim Development or Responsible Authority within its own area was made subject to control by the Minister;
- (ii) planning schemes might be suspended and interim development control brought into force when a resolution to prepare or adopt a revoking scheme had taken effect or where the Minister proposed to make such a scheme;
- (iii) agricultural buildings, hitherto exempt, might be made subject to the provisions of a planning scheme, and were therefore subject to interim development control;
- (iv) the exemptions extended under earlier legislation to land belonging to statutory undertakers were substantially modified.

Certain sections of the Act were also devoted to regulating (or in some cases confirming) regulations as to such specialized aspects of planning as (i) safeguards for open spaces and common land, e.g. where land for such purposes is taken for development, other land must be substituted; (ii) the protection of buildings of special architectural or historical interest, e.g. a Local Authority may prohibit the alteration, as well as the removal of any building scheduled under one of these headings by the Minister; (iii) the suspension and relaxation of byelaws; and (iv) a number of other incidental matters.

One of the key points in planning, i.e. the question of compensation and betterment, was however left unsettled and largely unchanged. At the time of passing the Act, it was found impossible to reach agreement on

this vital but controversial issue; and it was therefore decided to set it aside for further discussion and consideration and to devote separate legislation to the conclusions finally reached. The 1944 Act therefore confined itself to a brief statement that the compensation payable on any land purchased or scheduled for purchase within five years of the passing of the Act should be assessed on the basis of values ruling at March 1939 with supplementary compensation in the case of owner-occupiers of buildings or agricultural holdings, or where improvements had been effected since 1939.

The Act also made certain provisions for Exchequer assistance in the implementation of planning schemes.

### **Related Legislation 1945-6**

Four further Acts were passed during the period under review, which though not exclusively directed towards the furtherance of the new planning policy, had an important bearing upon it.

*The Distribution of Industries Act, June 1945*, gave statutory recognition to certain of the proposals contained in the White Paper on Employment Policy<sup>7</sup> (viz: that industrialists intending to open up new factories should first notify the Government of their intention; that the Government should be empowered to purchase land in "development" areas, i.e. areas which in the past have been unduly dependent on industries specially vulnerable to unemployment, and to render it suitable for industrial purposes; that financial encouragement should be given both to trading estates and to individual industrialists wishing to start operations in "development" areas). These provisions, although primarily concerned with forestalling unemployment, opened the way to the extension of State influence over the location of industry along the lines recommended by the Barlow Report.

*The Requisitioned Land and War Works Act, June 1945*, alongside a number of miscellaneous provisions relating to the period of derequisitioning and reinstatement, dealt with the "large mass of cases in which valuable buildings have been erected or extensive work done on requisitioned land or on other land . . . the expenditure incurred having been borne or partly borne by the Exchequer, or by a person having no interest or a limited interest in the land." The Act provided for the compulsory purchase by the Government of such land or lands (on which large sums of public money have been spent) subject to the ruling of a specially appointed Commission that such purchase was not only in the best public interest but that it was fair to all concerned. Special safeguards were inserted into the Act to make certain that common lands and open spaces would not be liable to purchase in this way unless equally advantageous land was given up in their place. The Act gave special powers to the Minister of Town and Country Planning to ensure "that this most important aspect of the matter was not overlooked."

*The Trunk Roads Act, March 1946* provided for supplementing the national system of routes for through traffic by adding to it other roads, particularly those connecting the chief centres of industry and population with each other or with the most important ports, and roads connecting the more important food producing districts with their markets, so as to form an interconnecting system of principal routes between various

<sup>7</sup>Cmd. 6527, May, 1944.

parts of the country. The Act also laid down that a general power should be conferred on the Central Authority to re-organize the whole system by the construction of new roads, etc., where necessary—and stressed that in doing so consideration should be given to the needs of national and local planning.

*The Acquisition of Land (Authorization Procedure) Act, April 1946* in the first place provided “a uniform compulsory purchase order procedure for authorizing Local Authorities, and certain Departments for specified purposes, to purchase land compulsorily for purposes covered by powers under the Town and Country Planning Act, 1944” and in the second place “for a temporary period a speedy procedure to authorize the proper authorities as specified to enter on and take possession of land in advance of purchase *in urgent cases* for purposes for which they could otherwise be authorized to purchase the land compulsorily.” This Act is mainly intended to ensure that the preparation of sites for housing keeps pace with the production of the houses themselves. Under its aegis, Local Authorities are able to serve notice on a site and take possession within fourteen days. It will also have the effect of facilitating the replanning of development areas since it will speed up procedure for the purchase of land for factory sites and other industrial purposes.

## IV. TOWN & COUNTRY PLANNING ACTS, 1947

On 6th and 13th August, 1947, two new planning Acts (in England and Wales: the Town and Country Planning Act, 1947, and in Scotland: the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947) received Royal Assent. On July 1st, 1948, the Acts came into operation as part of the planning law of the land.

The purpose of the new law is to establish an orderly, equitable and easily operated land use control system based on present day ideas and requirements. With this aim in view it repeals or consolidates all existing planning legislation (with the exception of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act*, 1943, those parts of the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1944 concerned with the redevelopment of specified areas and the *New Towns Act*, 1946); and introduces a number of new provisions designed to remove some of the most serious pre-war obstacles to good national and local planning.

Under the terms of the Acts, the old "planning scheme" system set up by the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1932 and the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act*, 1932 (see Chapter II) has been replaced by a system of "development plans" for the whole country along the lines laid down by the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1944 for certain specified areas. These plans, in which the broad lines of the finished picture are to be shown, must be drawn up and submitted to the Minister by every Local Planning Authority within three years after a day appointed by the Minister under the Act.

The Local Planning Authorities for this purpose are to be the County Councils, the County Borough Councils, or, where county boundaries do not compose suitable units, Joint Planning Boards. In other words, they are to be the Local Authorities already invested with wider responsibilities in other spheres of local government. The transference of final responsibility from the smaller authorities to the larger does not however imply indifference to purely local needs. On the contrary it will be incumbent upon the Local Planning Authority at each stage to consult the District Councils, who will in the last instance be responsible for putting the plans into effect. Furthermore, Local Planning Authorities are to be allowed to set up Planning Committees to take over any or all of their planning functions except the power to borrow money or levy a rate; and these Planning Committees may set up sub-committees of their own. So that although the majority of the members of a Planning Committee must be members of the Planning Authority, and the majority of the members of a sub-committee either members of the Planning Authority or of the Councils of the County Districts in the area of that Authority, it will nevertheless be possible for members of Urban and Rural District Councils to have a hand in drawing up the development plans which are to cover the areas of interest to them.

If any Local Planning Authority is, for any reason, unable or unwilling to prepare a development plan within the given time limit, its powers may either be taken over by the Central Authority or transferred to another Local Planning Authority who has an interest in the area concerned.

Before any development plan is submitted to the Minister, it must be given wide publicity so that persons whose land is thereby affected may have due warning of what is intended; and before the Minister gives his approval to any plan, a public enquiry or other hearing must be held.

Every development plan will have to be reviewed at five-yearly intervals, so that it can if necessary be adapted in detail to meet changed conditions, but once it has been approved and published, it cannot be challenged in the Courts, unless legal action is initiated within six weeks of the date of publication.

Both before the publication of development plans, and after they have been published and approved, development by private land owners or other bodies will be controlled along the lines set out in the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*. If development or building takes place without the consent of the Local Planning Authority, owners may be required to restore the land to its original state. Owners have the right of appeal to the Minister against decisions of Local Planning Authorities, and Local Planning Authorities have power to revoke or modify permission already given. The Minister has power to restrict the granting of permission, and where he has reason to think it would be in the public interest, to call in applications and make decisions upon them himself. In certain circumstances, where an owner can prove that he has suffered by refusal of permission to develop his land, he may demand that it should be bought by the Local Authority concerned for the relevant district or town.

Since it is recognized that the promotion of right development is at least as important as the prevention of wrong development, Local Authorities have been granted still wider powers of compulsory land purchase than they were given by the *Town and Country Planning Act, November 1944*. They have also been given authority to develop any land so acquired themselves, without first offering it to private enterprise.

The basis of compensation payable for land acquired under a compulsory purchase order will be the current market value of the property, restricted to its existing use. Where an interest in the property carries with it the right of vacant possession, it will be dealt with as if there were a lease terminating on 1st January, 1954, interposed between the purchaser and his right to vacant possession, since it is felt that the present high prices are not representative of true value, and money from the public purse should not be used to pay them.

Local Authorities who buy land for immediate development will be responsible for paying for it themselves (in some cases aided by Exchequer grants) since they will benefit from its increased value within a foreseeable length of time. Practically all other payments to land owners will be dealt with by a Central Land Board, which has been set up expressly to deal with the financial aspect of town and country planning.

#### CONSTITUTION AND FUNCTIONS OF THE CENTRAL LAND BOARD

The Central Land Board was appointed in November 1947 under the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1947*, and the corresponding Scottish Act.

The Board consists of a Chairman and six members appointed by the Ministry of Town and Country Planning, and the Secretary of State for Scotland. The membership of the Board is identical with that of the War-Damage Commission, and there is a common staff for both bodies.

The salaries of the Board and their officers, and the administrative expenses of the Board and Commission are defrayed from moneys provided by Parliament.



The Board is charged with the duties of (i) examining claims for payment by persons whose land has been depreciated in value by the Acts, and in due course, of making the payments, and (ii) determining and levying development charges on the development of land for which planning permission has been given. The Board also has certain powers of acquisition of land.

Under the terms of the Acts, there is no recognition of the potential losses suffered by land owners as a result of the setting up of the development plan system. It has been accepted however that in many cases, unreasonable hardship would be caused if no payments at all were made. A capital sum of £300,000,000 has therefore been set aside to meet the claims of land owners which have been examined by the Central Land Board and considered justified.

In the years between the wars, the cost of paying compensation to owners whose land either was or might be adversely affected by planning restrictions often led to a neglect of strict control (Local Authorities who could not afford compensation for loss of development values were apt to allow building to take place in too haphazard a manner) and to poor and timid planning. The constant attempt to cover the compensation cost by collecting the increased values enjoyed by other owners as a result of development was, as has been explained in an earlier section, quite unsuccessful. It has therefore been decided firstly that no owner will be paid compensation for refusal to develop, unless the land is decreased below its existing value as a result of the refusal; and secondly that where development is permitted, any increase in land value above that for existing use is to be collected by the Central Land Board in the form of a development charge.

The effect of these provisions will be (a) to enable Local Authorities to decide on the best use of land without taking the cost of compensation for loss of development rights into account and (b) to stabilize the price of land at or at about its value for existing use, for the purchaser in reckoning how much he can afford to give for land will naturally subtract the sum that he will have to pay to the Central Land Board before he can begin to develop it.

This method of centralizing and rationalizing compensation and betterment represents a great experiment in social control, and will, it is hoped, ensure that the very highest standard of development will henceforth be attained throughout the whole country.



## V. REPLANNING IN ACTION

### PREPARATORY MEASURES

The machinery created by legislation for the purpose of building a new Britain cannot at present be put into full working order. Land development or redevelopment, the provision or revision of basic services, the erection and demolition of buildings, and the creation of new towns require time, a labour force, a wealth of raw materials and financial reserves which are not yet available in post-war Britain. Resources here as in other European countries are strictly limited, and national needs are many and urgent. But in spite of this, a number of preparatory measures have been taken during the last two years, and a small amount of actual work will shortly be begun.

#### A Manageable Team

The number of Local Authorities with planning powers has been reduced from over one thousand to less than two hundred—the councils of counties and county boroughs. This has been done to ensure that the broad design of territorial development shall be drawn by a manageable team of local planning authorities, covering, singly or in combination, a sufficiently wide area.

#### Planning Consultants

Special planning consultants have been appointed for six Government “development areas”—West Cumberland, South Wales and Monmouthshire (excluding the borough of Pembroke), the North-East of England, South Lancashire, the Scottish Development area, and Wrexham in Wales. These appointments were made with the concurrence of the Local Planning Authorities, since it was recognized that any big new industrial developments and changes in industrial structure must inevitably have a far-reaching effect on physical planning, and that there must therefore be close and intimate co-operation between those responsible for the siting of industry and those responsible for drawing up more general plans.

#### Special Maps

A programme of map production has been initiated which has been described as the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken of the national life and resources of Britain. This programme includes:

- (i) The rapid publication from existing material of maps, partly of a provisional nature, incorporating the National Grid<sup>a</sup>, on the 10-inches to the mile and all the usual smaller scales except the  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch to the mile. These maps will incorporate revision carried out both for military and civil defence purposes during and immediately before the war, and will depict geographical and physical structure; land use; mining and mineral resources; industry; administrative areas; population; communication; public utility undertakings and other information, most of which has never previously been published or even collated.

<sup>a</sup> The National Grid is based on a system of squares. All lines are 10 kilometres apart, the marginal numbers against each line denoting its distance East or North from the Origin of the Grid (a point South West of Lands End). The Grid enables the position of any point to be defined by giving in proper sequence the numbers denoting its distance East and North from the Origin—distance East always being given first.

- (ii) The re-survey on a national basis of all built-up areas at a scale of 1/250 (or about 250-in. to 1 mile) and the publication of plans at that scale and at a scale of 1/2500 (or about 25-in. to 1 mile). These plans will be on new sheet lines based on the National Grid instead of on a county basis as at present.
- (iii) The overhaul, and re-casting on a national basis, of the 1/2500 plans outside built-up areas.
- (iv) The survey of contours at a vertical interval of 25 feet.

### Planning Reports

Official and unofficial planning reports have been prepared for many of Britain's counties, conurbations, cities and towns.

These plans cover such subjects as: the dispersal of the population; roads and communications, including railways, docks, canals and airports; industry; housing; public and quasi-public buildings, e.g., schools, churches etc.; public utility services; open spaces; and architecture and landscape. They make provision for the establishment of satellite towns; for industrial zoning according to the type of industry in question; for ring routes to avoid traffic congestion in the centres of large towns and for parkways to replace the old type of arterial road; for at least seven acres of open space per thousand of the population; and for a new low density of housing. In dealing with individual cities they are based on a conception of neighbourhood units of about 10,000 people, dovetailing into districts of about five neighbourhood units, which in their turn dovetail into the city as a whole. At each stage, they provide for the essentials (basic services, public recreational and educational buildings and institutions, open spaces and general amenity) to a well-ordered and complete community life. The plans also discuss the questions of administration, finance and time, stressing particularly that re-development on the proposed scale may take up to and in some cases well over fifty years.

At present, the majority of plans for rebuilding cities are still under discussion and examination by the public, by experts specially appointed for the purpose, by a number of Government Departments, and by the Local Planning Authorities concerned. The exceptions to this rule are the plans for the heavily bombed cities, and the Greater London plan.

As far as the heavily bombed cities are concerned, it was recently stated<sup>9</sup> that in spite of the country's straitened circumstances, a start should be made with the rebuilding of central areas in 1949; and, in order to assist planning authorities to perfect their plans for these areas on the most efficient, economic and attractive lines, the Ministry of Town and Country Planning issued in January 1948 a handbook entitled *The Redevelopment of Central Areas* which contained a set of scientific standards worked out for solving this most complex problem.

As regards Greater London, the main principles of the plan were endorsed by the Government in 1946, so that Local Authorities whose areas were covered by the plan should know exactly where they stood, and would not be in danger of drawing up detailed local schemes that might fail to conform with the proposed layout of the whole region. In this connection it was stated<sup>10</sup> that although the Government could

<sup>9</sup> Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade, September 16, 1948.

<sup>10</sup> Minister of Town and Country Planning, House of Commons, March 5, 1946.

not at this stage adopt a number of individual projects contained in the plan, the following general decisions had been reached.

- (i) that the overall growth of London's population and industry should be restrained. (This is one aspect of the general policy for achieving throughout the country a better balance of the distribution of industry, and in particular for assisting the recovery of the Development Areas);
- (ii) that a planned programme of decentralization to the outer areas of Greater London should replace the uncontrolled sprawl of the inter-war period. (The intention is to make provision for about one million persons and concurrently a related quota of industrial firms to be accommodated further out—mainly in a few new towns and in selected existing towns within 20 to 50 miles of London's centre); and
- (iii) that the general lines of decentralization and resettlement should broadly conform to the proposals made in the published Greater London plan.

Stress was laid upon the fact that the Government's policy was to deal with industry and population side by side and it was announced that conferences would be held with industrialists while the plan was being put into effect in order to ensure that a correct proportion of houses to factories and other commercial and industrial establishments was being provided.

The plan was accepted by the London County Council in November, 1946, and three projects to implement it adopted in March 1947.

## NEW TOWNS

### Administrative Machinery

The administrative machinery needed for the creation of New Towns has been established. The blue print for this machinery was contained in the Reports of the New Towns Committee and was largely substantiated in the New Towns Act, 1946. This Act:

- (a) empowers the Minister of Town and Country Planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland to make an order designating any area of land (which might include as its nucleus the area of an existing town) as the site of a proposed new town, if after consultation with the Local Authorities concerned they are satisfied that it is in the national interest that the land should be so developed;
- (b) authorizes the Minister and the Secretary of State to establish Corporations for the development of new towns, once the site has been designated. [The Act gives the Minister and Secretary of State discretion to appoint one Corporation to develop more than one new town, although the general rule is to be one Corporation to each new town];
- (c) empowers the Minister to make a special Order granting permission for all development which conforms with the Plan for the New Town prepared by the Corporation and approved by him;
- (d) provides that every Corporation should be given authority to acquire, hold, manage or dispose of any land or other property

in such a way as they think fit for the fulfilment of their purpose—acquisition of land to be either by agreement or by compulsory purchase order and always subject to the consent of the Minister, and disposal to be limited as a general rule to leaseholds for a term of up to but not exceeding ninety-nine years;

- (e) provides that every Corporation may, if this is considered desirable in the interests of amenity and public health, take over from Statutory Undertakers or Local Authorities the supply of gas, electricity, water, sewerage and other services in any area designated as the site for a new town;
- (f) lays down that every Corporation should be deemed to be a housing association within the meaning of the Housing Act 1936, and that accordingly it may provide any housing accommodation which Local Authorities are empowered to provide under the Act;
- (g) lays down that every Corporation will be expected to submit from time to time to the Minister a draft of the developments proposals and that they will be required to submit an annual Report of their activities and expenses which will be laid before both Houses of Parliament; and finally
- (h) provides (when the purposes for which the Corporation was established have been substantially achieved) for its dissolution and the transfer of its undertaking to the Local Authority within whose area the town is situated.

The capital cost of developing a new town area will be advanced from the Consolidated Fund to each Corporation, who will be responsible for repayment on terms approved by the Treasury.

### **Social Structure**

Plans for the social structure of the proposed New Towns have been drawn up. These were contained in the Final Report of the New Towns Committee, published in July, 1946. Among the more important proposals made were:

1. Both new and extension towns are desirable. No uniform physical-social structure should be aimed at. Full latitude for variety and experiment should be allowed.
2. The optimum population for the town area should as a general rule be 30,000 to 50,000; but with a related district may be 60,000 to 80,000.
3. A balanced social composition should be aimed at. The various sections of national life, e.g., the industrial section, the administrative section, the professional section, the artistic section, should as far as possible be represented. Segregation by income group should be avoided.
4. The choice of site should be made in relation to nation-wide political, social, economic and strategic considerations. The interests of those who live in the surrounding towns and villages as well as those who are to populate the New Towns should be remembered.
5. Estimates of areas required for industry, main centre and general urban purposes should be made, and the position of these zones decided.

6. Grouping into neighbourhoods should arise naturally from topographical features, but neighbourhoods should not be closed communities; each neighbourhood should have a centre with shops and public buildings.
7. The peripheral belt should be used in the main for agriculture; machinery should be set up to relate production in the green belt to local consumption and to promote co-operative services; small holdings should be encouraged.
8. Water supply sources must be adequate for the final size of the town. Sewage disposal works require early consideration, and co-operation with adjacent authorities should be explored.
9. The road system must link conveniently with the network and will probably be of the radial and ring type. An internal bus service is essential. Facilities within reasonable distance for private, club and charter flying, and for gliding, will be desirable.
10. Facilities for factories, and for clerical administrative establishments should be provided, and premises should also be provided for local commercial businesses and professions.
11. Houses should be provided to meet all requirements. The proportion of types should correspond to the needs of families, single persons and old people. Communal amenities should receive due consideration.
12. The shops policy should take account of service to consumers, interests of shopkeepers and return on public capital invested. The number of shops should probably be between 1 to 100 and 1 to 150 with competition in each trade. All types of trading organizations should be admitted, and special attention should be given to the architecture of shopping centres.
13. Sites should be allocated in consultation with Local Authorities for public primary and secondary schools, special schools, and further education. Facilities should also be given for private schools, and if new universities are to be built, their location in New Towns should be considered.
14. Hospital and medical services must take account of regional considerations, and of special circumstances of New Towns. In Scotland combined hospitals are preferred.
15. Permanent buildings should be provided in advance of full demand. There should be buildings for theatres, music, and arts, and dance halls, also an adequate library service. Special attention should be paid to places of refreshment, including hotels and a variety of restaurants as well as tearooms and cafes. Licensed premises should vary in character and size. There should be arrangements for parks, public gardens, playing fields, and allotments. For children and young people, playgrounds and a variety of club facilities are required, and community centres should cater for all ages.
16. National church organizations should help in provision of buildings, the sites of which should be provided on non-profit terms.
17. Possibility of local broadcasting service should be examined. Outside advertising on buildings should be regularized under



lease covenants, and hoardings and notice boards should be few and well designed. Encouragement should be given to local newspapers.

### **Ten Sites Chosen**

Since the passing of the New Towns Act, 1946, and the preparation of the Reports of the New Towns Committee, ten sites for New Town Development have been announced, and eight Development Corporations have been appointed. Six of these towns are sited within a sixty mile radius of London, and will be used primarily to relieve congestion in the overcrowded areas of that city. They are: Stevenage; Crawley-Three Bridges; Hemel Hempstead; Harlow, Hatfield and Welwyn Garden City; and Basildon. Work on these towns was limited during 1948 to making provision for the necessary extra water supplies, sewerage and roads; but most of the plans have already been drawn up and exhibited to the public, showing the proposed lay-out of the town in its entirety.

The four other New Towns are: Aycliffe and Easington (which on completion will be called Peterlee) in County Durham; East Kilbride; and Glenrothes (an area of about 5,730 acres lying in the parishes of Markinch and Leslie) in Scotland. These towns are designed to serve immediate industrial needs and mining areas; and on them, work is to go ahead at once within the limits of the housing programme.

The sites for all ten of the new towns which have so far been designated have been chosen with very careful consideration of such matters as the size of the area, the accessibility of water, gas and electricity, situation in the light of future industrial development, and the claims of agriculture. Nearly all will be extensions of existing small towns, where planned development will be of the greatest value; but it is not intended either to eliminate existing villages in the surrounding countryside or to permit populations to swell beyond the figure (usually between 30,000 and 60,000) for which the town is originally planned.



## APPENDIX I

### NATIONAL PARKS

The conservation of extensive areas of beautiful and relatively wild country in which the characteristic landscape beauty is strictly preserved, access and facilities for public open-air enjoyment are amply provided, wild life, buildings and places of architectural and historic enjoyment are suitably protected, and established farming use is effectively maintained are amongst the main objectives of town and country planning.

Ways and means of achieving this objective were discussed by the National Parks Committee in their Report, published July, 1947.

The Report recommends that twelve National Parks, covering 5,682 square miles, should be established in annual instalments of four over a period of three years, as follows:

First Instalment: Lake District (892 square miles); North Wales (870 square miles); Peak District (572 square miles); Dartmoor (392 square miles).

Second Instalment: Yorkshire Dales (635 square miles); Pembrokeshire Coast (229 square miles); Exmoor (318 square miles); South Downs (275 square miles).

Third Instalment: Roman Wall (193 square miles); North Yorkshire Moors (614 square miles); Brecon Beacon and Black Mountains (511 square miles); the Broads (181 square miles).

[Geographical distribution and the need for protection govern the order in which these areas are arranged. No attempt has been made to assess their relative beauty or recreational value.]

In addition to the National Parks, fifty-two areas of outstanding landscape beauty, scientific interest or recreational value have been selected in the Report as Conservation Areas, to be protected by special measures from disfiguring developments.

The Report also advocates the maintenance of a coastal path by cliff, bay, dune and estuary round the whole of England and Wales.

To put this programme into effect, the Report recommends the setting up of a specific Central Authority, in the form of a National Parks Commission, under the Parliamentary supervision of the Ministry of Town and Country Planning. This Commission should be responsible for formulating policy on the planning and management of the Parks; for seeing that such policy is fully and effectively carried out; and for supervizing the expenditure of money for the purpose. It should also be required to give advice and guidance and allocate money grants to the Advisory Committees of Local Authorities concerned with the planning and management of Conservation Areas.

The work of the Commission should cover a very wide field, and should include advisory, administrative and managerial duties. Its authority should include powers to acquire and manage land in National Park areas; powers to define the exact boundaries of National Parks; powers to make general regulations concerning the development in National Parks; and powers to negotiate with other Government Departments on existing land use.

The Report recommends that planning control rather than the widespread acquisition of land should be the basis of National Park policy, and that the Commission should therefore be empowered and encouraged to co-operate with owners or occupiers in managing and developing their land in accordance with National Park requirements. Grants should be paid for developments on private land dedicated to approved National Park objectives; and where land is acquired by the National Commission or offered to the Treasury in lieu of death duties; it should in suitable cases be handed over to The

National Trust,<sup>1</sup> particularly where the areas in question could be conveniently administered with, or would round off existing Trust properties.

The day-to-day management of each National Park should be in the hands of Park Committees, set up by an Order of the Minister of Town and Country Planning. The Chairmen of these Committees and half the members should be appointed by the National Park Commission, and the other half by the County or County Borough Councils whose administrative areas fall partly or wholly within the National Park.

The Park Committees should play an important part in the field of management, both in carrying out work referred to them by the Commission, and in initiating proposals for the Commission's consideration. Their functions should include responsibility for preparing schemes for landscape improvement; for the increase of holiday accommodation; for the allocation and management of camp and caravan sites; and, in conjunction with existing organizations, for the improvement of facilities for sport and recreation, including walking, rock climbing, motoring, cycling, canoeing, boating, sailing, riding, fishing and natural history study. They should also be consulted before any development takes place, whether by private owners, Local Authorities, or Statutory Corporations.

A sufficient administrative and technical staff should be employed in each National Park to carry out executive action on behalf of the Commission and the Park Committees; to prepare and submit financial estimates; to supervise the expenditure of money; to present annual accounts; and to keep the Commission informed on Park administration and development. The staff should be headed by a chief resident officer, and should include a Planning Officer to serve the Park Committee; an Estates Officer, to be responsible for the direct management of land in the ownership of the Commission and for advising and assisting other owners in the management of their property; an Information Officer, to be responsible for the guidance of the visiting public, the preparation and distribution of National Park literature, and the management of National Park Centres to be set up in each National Park; and a Recreation Officer to plan and make provision for adequate holiday accommodation and popular sport and recreation. There should also be an adequate warden service to protect farmers and residents from damage by the public, and a group of technical officers capable, between them, of giving advice on architecture, landscape design, woodland management, agriculture and the conservation of wild life.

*Conservation Areas.* The National Parks Commission should be empowered to co-operate with the Local Authorities in seeing that the Conservation Areas designated by the Minister of Town and Country Planning are properly protected. Their functions in this field should include (a) the nomination of a certain number of the members of the Advisory Committees, (b) the giving of technical advice to the Advisory Committees and the Local Planning Authorities concerned, and (c) the making of grants to Local Planning Authorities for specific purposes which will enhance the value of Conservation Areas; and to non-profit making organizations for the promotion of popular open-air enjoyment.

*Coastal Areas.* The Report proposes the setting up of a Coastal Planning Advisory Committee for the co-ordinated planning of the coast of England and Wales. This

<sup>1</sup>The National Trust was founded in 1895 as a private venture and was incorporated by an Act of Parliament in 1907. Its purpose is the promotion of permanent preservation, for the benefit of the nation, of lands and tenements, including buildings, of beauty or historic interest, and as regards land, for the preservation of their natural aspect, features, and plant life. Property of the National Trust is usually acquired by gift, or by purchase from funds subscribed by the public, and includes villages, cliffs, headlands, houses, and castles. More than 63 historic houses and estates belong to the Trust, and it owns over 100,000 acres in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and buildings worth more than £1,250,000.

Scotland has her own National Trust, founded in 1931. Its purpose is the same as that of the English Trust, and like the latter, it receives no State assistance and its money and properties come from membership subscriptions and bequests.

Committee should be responsible for upholding the interests of landscape preservation, popular open-air enjoyment and ramblers' access; and for representing the needs of National Parks and Conservation Areas.

*Nature Conservation.* The Report recommends that the National Parks Commission should be fully responsible for the conservation of nature in National Parks with the assistance and advice of a specially appointed Biological Service and Nature Conservation Board.

*Access and Footpaths*<sup>a</sup>. The Report recommends that public access as of right should be established in National Parks over all suitable land, such as mountain, moor, heath, down, cliff and common land, and uncultivated land generally, with the exception of areas where public access would conflict with other essential uses. Similar considerations should apply to the planning, establishment and maintenance of footpaths and bridleways in Conservation Areas.

*Financial Provisions.* On the financial side, the Report emphasises that National Parks will make a valuable contribution to the national economy by providing centres of interest and attraction to foreign tourists and will yield "unlimited returns in health and happiness, in opportunities for the enjoyment of country pursuits and interests, and a new growth of understanding between town and country."

Capital expenditure amounting to £9,250,000 on a ten-year programme would be provided from the National Land Fund of £50,000,000. Recurrent expenditure would be £170,000 for the first full year of operations (covering four National Parks) and £750,000 on and after the fourth year, when all the National Parks would be established.

<sup>a</sup>The Report of the Committee appointed by the National Parks Committee in July 1946 to consider the question of public rights of way in all its aspects was published on September 23rd, 1947.

The Report concerned itself with the history and present law relating to footpaths and access to the countryside; with survey and determination of rights of way; with settlement of disputes; with protection and convenience of the public; with closures and diversions; and with conflicting interests in lands and beaches, shores and inland waters.

It recommended that a national survey should be made of all rights of way; that legislation should be introduced to give the public the greatest possible freedom of access to cultivated as well as uncultivated land; and that long-distance footpaths, such as the proposed Pennine Way and the old coastguards' path round the whole coast-line of England and Wales, should be established or maintained.

## APPENDIX II

### PORTS AND HIGHWAYS

#### Ports

The formation of a new Port Authority for the Clyde similar to the Port of London Authority was recommended in the Report of the Clyde Estuary Committee, which was appointed in August 1944, under the chairmanship of Lord Cooper "To enquire into the present arrangements for the provision and administration of navigational facilities and of docks and harbours of the River and Firth of Clyde and the lochs leading from them, and to report what modifications, if any, in those arrangements are desirable for the promotion of the trade of the estuary and the public interest."

The Report published in December, 1944, also proposed the evolution of a master plan, which might incorporate the following:

- dry dock facilities for the largest ships;
- better facilities for handling ore cargoes;
- increased mechanization;
- first-class roads serving and radiating from the dock areas;
- expansion of barge traffic; and
- construction of a naval base.

#### Highways

"Measures to improve and extend the highway system are to be put into operation as part of a plan to increase the efficiency and the scope of the inland transport system as a whole. The measures are to be framed with full regard to the interests of Town and Country Planning; the location and requirements of industry and agriculture and other aspects of national planning, particularly the Government's full employment policy. Their main object is to make the highways freer, and safe for all classes of road users, with corresponding advantage to the economy and well-being of the country as a whole." (Minister of Transport, May 5, 1946).

The works programme is divided into three stages which will cover a period of at least ten years. *Stage I* is to be devoted to the overtaking of arrears of road maintenance which accumulated during the six years of war; to the repair of serious damage to highways caused by military manoeuvres; to the resumption of schemes—such as the Dartford-Purfleet Tunnel—for which work was interrupted by the outbreak of war; to the initiation of work of first priority in and in connection with the Development Areas; and finally to the reconstruction of road works forming part of the war-damaged cities. *Stage II* should see the completion of arrears of maintenance and continued activity in the elimination of accident black spots. In this period, there should also be increased activity on major road works of new construction as well as on road improvements in Development Areas and other schemes started before 1939. During *Stage III* a comprehensive reconstruction of the principal national routes should be completed.

The rate at which it will be possible to initiate and proceed with the work planned will depend on the materials and labour force available and the amount of financial provision which can be made. Preliminary steps include:

- (i) *The establishment of a Committee on road safety in December, 1943.* Road safety is closely related to the future layout of both towns and highways. The work of the Committee covers such matters as drawing up plans for more motor-car parks, more lay-bys for road lorries on country roads, etc.
- (ii) *The passing of the Trunk Roads Act in March, 1946.* The Act provides for supplementing the national system of routes for through traffic (by adding to it other roads, particularly those connecting the chief centres of industry and population with each other or with the most important ports, and roads connecting the more important food-producing districts with their markets) so as to form an interconnecting system of principal routes between various parts of the country. The Act also lays down that a general power should be

conferred on the Central Authority to reorganize the whole system by the construction of new roads, etc., where necessary—and stresses that in doing so consideration should be given to the needs of national and local planning.

- (iii) *The extension and simplification of the system of grants from the Road Fund.* This will assist Local Highway Authorities with whom the initiative in highway improvements primarily rests—apart from the Trunk Roads, for which the Minister of Transport is directly responsible.
- (iv) *The appointment of an Expert Committee to investigate Ferry Services linking Trunk and Classified Roads*, with the following terms of reference:

“to investigate ferry services linking trunk and classified roads in Great Britain; to make recommendations for the improvement of the equipment or operation of such services with a view to their greater efficiency and adequacy, and with the same object to report on the amendment of the law governing the provision of such services that appears to be desirable.”

#### **The Severn Bridge Scheme**

The preparatory work on the Severn Bridge Scheme is nearing completion, and actual construction will begin as soon as the nation's economic situation allows. The scheme, which is one of the key points in the road proposals of the country and will contribute to the success of the new industries now being developed in South Wales, envisages the construction of a new road linking the main road from Gloucester to Bristol on the east of the Severn Estuary with the main road from Gloucester to South Wales on the west side. Including the Severn and Wye Bridges, the new road will extend for a distance of about eight miles, reducing the distance from London to South Wales by ten miles and from Bristol to South Wales by fifty miles. In an authorizing Order made under the *Trunk Roads Act*, 1946, which came into force on August 1, 1947, the Government has approved the spending of £9,000,000 on this scheme.

#### **The Tyne Tunnel**

Construction has begun on the Tyne Tunnel to link Jarrow and Wallsend by road. This work is part of a scheme to open up the Tyneside and to bring easier access and better transport facilities to the heavily industrialized regions lying on each side of the River Tyne between Newcastle and the river mouth. The construction of the tunnel will cost approximately £3,600,000, of which the Ministry of Transport is contributing 75 per cent.



### APPENDIX III HYDRO-ELECTRIC SCHEMES

The development of hydro-electric schemes plays an important part in town and country planning, since upon its speed and efficiency the re-location of industry must to a great extent depend.

#### Scotland

Greatest progress in the development of this source of industrial power has been made in Scotland. The North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board (established under the Hydro-Electric Development (Scotland) Act, 1943) stated in its fourth annual report (published on June 22, 1948) that nine constructional schemes comprising twelve hydro-electric projects for the generation of electricity, with a total authorized capacity of 439,600 kilowatts, had been promoted by the end of 1947.

Examination of the potentialities of the undeveloped hydro-electric resources of the Highland Area also continues, and details of a number of new schemes have been considered and their practicability as sources of future power proved. Field surveys on eight of these new schemes, whose total annual output approximates to 820 million units per annum, were completed during the year, and it is anticipated that most or all of them will shortly be published.

In addition, the Report states that three hundred and twenty miles of 132,000 volt transmission lines for connecting the generating stations of the major schemes with one another and with certain existing steam generating stations were surveyed and contracts placed; that seven constructional schemes for high pressure transmission were approved by the Electricity Commissioners; and that nineteen distribution schemes (fourteen of which were approved by the Commissioners and confirmed by the Secretary of State) covering isolated areas totalling 4,000 square miles with a widely distributed population of about 122,250 had been submitted to the Electricity Commissioners for approval by the end of 1947.

#### England

The Severn Barrage Scheme is the only large-scale hydro-electric development scheme at present under consideration in England. This scheme originated from the conclusions (published in a Report in 1933) of the Severn Barrage Committee of the Economic Advisory Council which was appointed in 1925 to examine the possibility of using the tidal water of the Severn to generate electricity. This Committee estimated that a net annual output of 2,207,000,000 units would be available for transmission to the grid, and that by 1941, the proposed scheme would provide one-thirteenth of the total requirements of the whole country.

In 1943 a small technical body was appointed "to review the conclusions of the Severn Barrage Committee in the light of later engineering experience and practice and of other developments, and to suggest what modifications, if any, should be made in the proposed scheme, the programme for its execution and estimates of its cost."

In February, 1944, the findings of this technical body were published in a Report, which dealt with the subject under the following main headings: brief description of the 1933 Barrage Scheme; major features of the 1933 Barrage Scheme agreed to; modifications of conditions prevailing at the time of the 1933 Barrage Report; pumped storage; modified scheme as now proposed; dredging; consideration of features other than power development; character of Barrage output and methods of utilization; Barrage generating plant; gross and net electrical energy from the Barrage plant; substations and transmission system; estimated capital cost of Barrage works; plant and transmission; annual capital charges and working costs; coal saving due to use of tidal energy; economic value of Severn Barrage; materials; labour; period of construction; and the effect of the scheme on other interests.

The Report's appendices dealt among other things with methods of utilization of the energy from the Barrage; gross and net electrical energy from Barrage plant; substations and transmission system; capitalized interest during period of construction; and coal saved due to use of tidal energy.

The Committee's chief recommendations were:

1. The best site for the Barrage is at the "English Stones."
2. Single tide working, generating power on the falling tide only, is the most suitable under the conditions obtaining.

The maximum power available at spring tides will be in round figures 800,000 kilowatts and the average annual output of energy at the Barrage substations will be 2,190 million, and at the points of reception will be 2,107 million kilowatt-hours during the first fifteen years and 2,207 million kilowatt-hours thereafter.

The road and rail crossings should be treated independently of the power scheme. Provision has been made to allow the existing upstream ports to develop with their normal extensions. This will be suitably met by the two 70-foot locks which are proposed.

In view of the rapid expansion of the supply and demand of electricity in the country, intermittent and variable energy from the Severn Barrage can be used in conjunction with existing and new coal-fired power stations connected to the "grid" system, and the need for storage of energy no longer arises.

The estimated total capital costs of the scheme under the conditions stated, with and without transmission, at pre-war and at estimated values used in the Report are shown below:

	1936 Pre-war basis	1944 Report basis
Barrage scheme .. .. .	£24,454,000	£40,216,700
Barrage with transmission .. ..	£28,640,000	£47,006,700

The estimated cost energy in pence per kilowatt-hour is:—

<i>For first fifteen years from 1955 with restriction of output:—</i>	1936 Pre-war basis	1944 Report basis
at Barrage substations .. .. .	0.134	0.209
at reception points .. .. .	0.175	0.275
<i>Without restriction of output:—</i>		
at Barrage substations .. .. .	0.128	0.199
at reception points .. .. .	0.167	0.262

The estimated average saving in coal for the first fifteen years of operation is 985,000 tons per annum.

The work could be completed in eight years and the average number of men employed yearly would be 4,570 at the site. In addition to these about 6,285 men would be indirectly employed yearly in the manufacture of cement, steel, machinery and the transport of materials. The average yearly total is therefore 10,855. The average yearly total including labour for transmission and substations is 11,727. The Barrage scheme is practicable from an engineering point of view and it can be economically justified under the conditions stated.

## Wales

It was officially stated in February, 1944, by the Minister of Fuel and Power that "the areas in Wales where hydro-electric power resources exist, which might be capable of development on an economic basis, are now being surveyed by the North Wales Power Company, who have included the harnessing of the River Conway in their survey." In August, 1948, approval was given by the British Electricity Authority for a scheme to increase the catchment area of the Dolgarrog hydro-electric station by about 3,400 acres, involving the construction of several miles of leats or open canals, a tunnel a mile long and an extension of the present reservoir. The increased output from the station will be obtained without additional generating plant.

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